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SUPPLEMENT.

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BOOKS.

THE SEMIRAMIS OF THE NORTH.

"The Story of a Throne" (Catherine II. of Russia). From the French of K. Waliszewski. Two vols. London : William Heinemann. 1895.

THESE volumes supplement and complete the author's previous work, "The Romance of an Empress," which dealt with the personal history of that famous woman who was at once the Semiramis and the Messalina of the North. In Catherine the Great were exhibited a towering ambition, a voluptuousness of life, and a masculine force of character to which the records of her sex afford scarcely a parallel. Tiger-like in her instincts, her friends and enemies felt now the caressing, velvety paw, and now the cruel and lacerating claws. Catherine was colossal in her immorality, and wished to be thought colossal in her intellect. The latter she decidedly was not, in spite of the flatteries of the French philosophers. It is but just to her as a ruler to say that she effected some real improvements; but she was too fitful and erratic to achieve the solid labours of a great reformer, while her vices sapped all the best elements in her nature. Yet she had a strong individuality, with no small share of originality. She was the most capable, if also the most restless, worker in her dominions; she discovered and trained the men who were to be useful in furthering her plans; and the Russia which she left to her successors was undoubtedly a very much more imposing Empire than that which existed when she ascended the throne.

M. Waliszewski introduces us in his first volume to the statesmen, the soldiers, and the chief men of Catherine's reign; and a most extraordinary collection of human beings they were. All seem to be half insane on some point or other. Take the statesmen for example. Their vagaries, eccentricities, and buffooneries would certainly have secured for them an intimate acquaintance with a lunatic asylum in most self-respecting States, if they had been ordinary men; yet some of them were men of real power as organizers and warriors, and left their mark indelibly upon their times. During the first half of Catherine's reign the leading statesman was Count Panin, almost the only one of the Empress's advisers who dared to think for himself. He was the most level-headed of her statesmen, and yet we read concerning him that his indolence and sloth were beyond expression, and that he passed his time with courtesans of the commonest kind. He was voluptuous by temperament and slothful on system, and to the industrious Swedish Ambassador Holker he once remarked: "My dear baron, it is evident that you are not accustomed to affairs of State if you let them interfere with your dinner." In 1778, our English ambassador, Harris, wrote to the Foreign Office: "You will not credit me if I tell you that, out of the twenty-four hours, Count Panin only gives half an hour to the discharge of his official duties."

Bezborodko, who succeeded Panin, was another extraordinary man. He was a gross, sensual fellow, who only knew Russian, but he had a wonderful memory for law, and made himself necessary to Catherine. He retired eventually as a Count of the Holy Empire, with enormous wealth, salt works in the Crimea, fisheries in the Caspian Sea, and 45,000 peasants. Yet with all this he died in debt. Razumovski, another councillor, kept an enormous household, but he was a good-natured soul, and when his niece on one occasion told him that he had a number of people he could very well do without, he replied: "Quite so, but they could not do without me."

The soldiers to whom Catherine was indebted for the glory of the Russian arms included Rumiantsof, the conqueror of Kagoul; the savage Kamienski, who would cut pieces of flesh out of his men at the manoeuvres, and who stripped his prisoners in thirty degrees of cold, and dashed cold water over them until they were

literally frozen; the Prince of Nassau-Siegen, who was beaten by Gustavus of Sweden at Svenskund; Joseph Ribas, upon whom was written the unusual epitaph, that "by his own wits he became a good general, an excellent diplomatist, and even an honest man"; and, most famous of all, Suvorof, or Suvarrow. This celebrated general, who figures inaccurately in Byron's "Don Juan," was never defeated in the field. He was short of stature, being only 5 ft. 4 in. in height. Suvorof was idolized by his soldiers. He had implicit faith in his star, his conceit was unbounded, and he behaved sometimes like a raving lunatic. He would come out of his tent stark naked and turn somersaults on the grass. His other eccentricities were equally amazing. At times apparently humane and averse from the shedding of blood, on other occasions he sanctioned the most awful massacres. It was his deliberate conviction that there were only three great generals in the history of modern warfare—Turenne, Laudon, and Suvorof.

But the men who wielded the most influence in Catherine's reign were the favourites, and chief of these were the Orlofs, Patiomkin or Potemkin, and the Zubofs. Gregory Orlof succeeded Prince Poniatowski in the affections of the Empress. It was he who planned the murder of Peter III., and it was his brother Alexis who committed the deed in 1762. The two brothers were men of gigantic stature and herculean strength. The family of the Counts Bobrinski originated through Gregory's *liaison* with the Empress. Gregory Orlof became Emperor in all but the name. Nothing like his influence over the Empress had been seen since the foundation of the monarchy. Imperious as Catherine was, she submitted to all his caprices without a murmur. Orlof's private life was scandalous in the last degree, and it is not surprising, perhaps, that this brilliant, reckless prince and debauchee should have ended his days as a madman. The Marquis de Vérac wrote from St. Petersburg to the Comte Vergennes that the details of Orlof's death were so terrible that he dared not even write them in cypher.

Equally singular in character was Patiomkin. This descendant of a noble but impoverished Polish family is, in the eyes of foreigners at least, the most celebrated of all the Empress's favourites. Soon after he entered the Russian army his striking face and figure attracted the attention of the Czarina, and having been attached to the household for some years, in 1774 he became her recognized favourite. Two years later he began to direct the Russian policy in Europe, and he continued to do so until his death in 1791. Though a man of considerable ability, there was a large element of burlesque in almost all his actions. He was licentious in his life, tyrannical and unscrupulous in character, and as lavish and extravagant as several Eastern potentates rolled into one. When Catherine paid a visit to the Crimea, the seat of Patiomkin's Government in 1784, he played off a gigantic hoax upon her by raising mock towns on her route, peopled for the time being with mock merchants, tradesmen, and agriculturists, who had been hired for the purpose in the provinces. Patiomkin received the credit for Suvorof's great victories, as head of the army, and was awarded a magnificent reception on his return to St. Petersburg in 1791. At an early stage in his career Patiomkin had one eye put out in a quarrel over billiards, and he squinted with the other, yet no one except Gregory Orlof ever had an influence over Catherine comparable with his. He was described by one of his relatives as "dreadful and repulsive in appearance," but he could not always have been so. His habits were simply disgusting. He was an enormous eater and drinker, and he would pass whole days in his room half dressed, uncombed, unwashed, biting his nails meanwhile. When abroad, this gorgeous prince would be seen in clothes embroidered with gold, constellated with badges, and literally blazing with diamonds. Yet M. Waliszewski observes of Patiomkin, endorsing Suvorof's own judgment, that no one better understood Catherine's "mind and temperament," or "better understood how to bring out the latent forces of the great and powerful nation under her sway." The Zubofs conclude the story of the favourites, and Plato Zubof, a man far inferior in natural gifts to Orlof, or Patiomkin, was the last conspicuous personage discovered, educated, and loved by Catherine.

The section devoted to the philosophers shows Voltaire especially in the part of a sycophant, a part which that man of genius was but too frequently ready to play. It seems almost incredible to find such an intellectual Anak describing a woman like Catherine in such terms as these : "She is an angel before whom all men should be silent"; "she is equal to the mother of God"; "she is the divinity of the North"; "she is above nature, history, philosophy itself. She is the instructor of the philosophers. She is more learned than all the academies," &c. &c. Diderot, beguiled by the feline hypocrite, went to St. Petersburg, but was very badly treated, and was glad to get home again. Rousseau refused to listen to the voice of the charmer, and in consequence was voted by Catherine to be not so clever as she thought he was.

When we come to lay down the work we are astonished at its revelations. The whole story is most graphically told, and with considerable originality. Few novels could be more fascinating; but the reader would do well not to pin his faith to every statement as absolutely historical.

MASTERPIECES OF GREEK SCULPTURE.

"Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture." From the German of Adolf Furtwaengler. Edited by E. Sellers. London : Heinemann. 1895.

WHEN we dissent from a novel and ingenious theory because it rests on insufficient evidence and seems to us more probably false than true, we are too apt, in setting it aside, to use hard words as to the temerity of its author. In the interest of science this is bad policy. Dissent from, disprove if you can, but never deprecate, a new doctrine. For adventurous theories, when put forward by scholars who are fully equipped, are not only more stimulating but generally carry us further than many patient dissertations which prove their duller theses. They put the problem in a new light and expose difficulties which had been previously ignored.

In this spirit we may discreetly approach the new work in which Professor Furtwaengler attempts to restore lost masterpieces of Greek sculpture. To students of Greek art Professor Furtwaengler is well known as a thorough master of his subject, whose aesthetic sense has not been dulled by the trivialities of archaeology. But even those who best appreciate his ability are inclined to smile when his name is mentioned; it suggests startling, paradoxical, wrong-headed theories. Now he comes forward to brand as spurious a work which has always been accepted as genuine, like the Apollo Stroganoff; at another time, when a discoverer has pronounced his own "discoveries" to be forgeries, Professor Furtwaengler surprises the world by defending them as genuine. In the handsome work before us, edited in an English and, we must add, improved form by his admirer Miss Sellers, he is true to his reputation.

The ordinary visitor to European museums of sculpture hardly realizes how few original statues of the great Greek masters are preserved. As a work of the first rank, whose authenticity and authorship cannot be disputed, the Hermes of Praxiteles stands alone. We have the Elgin Marbles, which were wrought under the influence of Phidias, of which some, we cannot doubt, were wrought by his hand; but we have none of his famous statues—the Athena of the Parthenon, the Zeus of Olympia, or the Lemnian Athena—nothing of which we can say with positive certainty, "this was wrought by Phidias." The Varvakion Athena and the smaller "Lenormant" statuette can give us but the merest idea of the general appearance of the great maiden of the Parthenon. The thought that these things of beauty are irretrievably lost is painful; and therefore Professor Furtwaengler is very seductive when he comes with some beautiful plates, and bids us, by regarding and comparing them, to reproduce in imagination the form and visage of the Lemnian Athena, which was, according to some, the most wonderful of all the works of Phidias. Professor Furtwaengler's attention was attracted by two female statues at Dresden, each of which was in search of a head. One had a head which certainly did not belong to it. The other had originally a head, which was ruled by archaeologists not to belong to it and was therefore taken off, but which has been proved by

Professor Furtwaengler to be the rightful head and has therefore been restored to its body. This restoration was suggested by a certain Bologna bust, which, strange to say, has turned out to be the true head of the other Dresden statue. The photographic reproductions of the two restored figures are very fine, and they certainly seem to be copies of the same original. This original, according to their restorer, was no less than the Lemnian Athena which stood on the Acropolis of Athens. Professor Furtwaengler believes that he has identified other copies elsewhere, but these, he confesses, are of little interest or value. A certain gem, however, aids him in determining that his Athena held a helmet in her right hand.

This theory is not altogether original. Working on the same materials, Schorn thought he had hit on the Athena Parthenos, but the copies of this work which have since come to light disproved his thesis. Puchstein then hit on the conjecture which Furtwaengler, on the basis of his own ingenious restorations, attempts to establish. His proofs are unconvincing. The meagre notices of Lucian and Pausanias tell us far too little about the work of Phidias to enable us to identify a copy of it without some external evidence. But, at the same time, when we remember that it was the habit of later artists to copy in marble the bronze statues of the old masters, we have to admit that copies of the Lemnian may be extant. This is, of course, the first principle on which Professor Furtwaengler's method depends, and we accept it. But in any given case we can hardly hope to get beyond the category of possibility without the help of chance in the form of external evidence. It is pleasant and instructive to entertain oneself for an afternoon with Lange's notion, which Furtwaengler accepts and develops, that in the Torso Medici we have a copy of the Athena Promachos; but to him or her who regards such a guess as certain we can only say, Great is thy faith!

From this example of Professor Furtwaengler's method of restoring lost masterpieces we may turn to an example of his method of treating existent masterpieces. While he is eager to give us what we have not, he is no less eager to take away from us that which we have. The world has been unanimous in regarding the Venus of Melos as one of the most marvellous achievements of Greek artistic talent. Praxiteles, even Phidias, had been named in connection with this statue, and although it is now generally recognized to be a work of a later age, few hesitate to place it in the first rank. Professor Furtwaengler tells us that this is a mistake. The Aphrodite neither is nor faithfully reproduces a great work. It is only an unlucky combination of two different motives, and the result is, in fact, better than it ought to have been. The Melian sculptor (who lived *circa* 150-50 B.C.) took as his model the Aphrodite which was the original of the Venus of Capua, and which, by a process of ingenious reasoning, Professor Furtwaengler would ascribe to Scopas. This work of Scopas represented the goddess gazing at her own charms reflected in the shield of Ares—an idea which we find in the "Argonautica" of Apollonius. She had let her robe fall from the upper part of her body, and with her right hand she prevented it from dropping to her feet. Her left foot was advanced and raised to support the shield which she held with her left hand. The Melian Aphrodite, according to Professor Furtwaengler, has borrowed the attitude of this Aphrodite of Scopas; but the one thing which made that attitude intelligible, the shield, is left out. Instead of the shield, the motive of an apple in the left hand has been introduced, and, according to Furtwaengler's reconstruction, the left arm was supported on a pillar. This motive was borrowed from a statue which represented Tyche, the patron goddess of Melos, resting her right arm on a pillar and holding, possibly, an apple in her right hand. Supposing this analysis to be right, there is only one conclusion. The Aphrodite, who ever since she first emerged from her "niche" in Melos has been a proverb in the mouths of men as the fairest statue in the world, is an essentially inartistic work. Two incongruous conceptions have been blended; the goddess stands in an attitude which has no motive. Professor Furtwaengler, indeed, points out that certain modifications were made which lessened and softened the incongruity, and that the artist, who had studied

the works of Phidias, treated his drapery in the "grand" style. But no modifications could hide the main defects which this theory attributes to the work of the Melian sculptor. Perhaps Professor Furtwaengler may be right. But those who worship at the shrine of the Venus of Melos may reflect with satisfaction that his ingenious argument is very far from being demonstrative. On the contrary, it involves a number of guesses which are by no means convincing. The motive of the statue is still a riddle, and, until a more successful attempt than that of Professor Furtwaengler has been made to solve it, we may, with a good conscience, acquiesce in the general impression that the Venus of Melos is in the highest sense a work of art.

These instances will suffice to show what may be expected from Professor Furtwaengler's "Masterpieces." Many novel theses are defended, but none are indisputably established. Some of the most interesting problems of Greek sculpture are ventilated, and many valuable contributions to the subject are made by the way.

SIR EDWARD HERTSLET'S MAP OF AFRICA.

"The Map of Africa by Treaty." By Sir Edward Hertslet, K.C.B. Two vols. H.M. Stationery Office. 1894. (Issued in 1895.)

THE insensate scramble for pieces of Africa which the European Powers have kept up during the past twelve years seems to be nearly at an end. For practically everything that was to be got on the continent for nothing has been appropriated. There is very little to be had now except in return for hard cash paid to States that are paupers, or for harder blows from those that are solvent. Here and there a frontier line is still undefined, the suzerainty of a few small patches is left undecided, but practically the whole of Africa has now been parcelled out among the States of Europe. This, however, has not been done without involving the map of Africa in temporary chaos. That the intricate series of treaties of the last decade, with their frequent amendments and their different uses of geographical names, has confused the public is not surprising. Thus the term Congo Basin is used in the treaties in six different senses. Sometimes it means the "Conventional Congo Basin" of the Berlin Act, which includes British East Africa; at others it means the geographical basin as defined in 1885; or the political boundaries as limited by either of four later treaties. The confusion is such that three recent maps refer one well-known district to three different Powers. The unfortunate Anglo-Congolese Convention of 1894, moreover, shows that the confusion is shared to some extent by the usually well informed officials of the Foreign Office; for the English Government then entered merrily into arrangements in direct opposition to guarantees given to Germany. An authentic compilation of the treaties and agreements upon the partition of Africa has therefore become indispensable. Sir Edward Hertslet has prepared one, and it has been issued in two volumes by the Stationery Office. The author is to be congratulated both upon having undertaken such a useful task and for having performed it with a judgment and care that deserve the highest praise.

The book appears opportunely. The scramble for land is almost over, and Africa has entered on a new stage in its history. The relations of Europe and Africa have passed through three different stages already in the present century. First came that of the period when Europe wished to let the Africans "stew in their own juice," and would accept no responsibilities there that could by any possibility be avoided. This attitude lasted from the beginning of the century up till 1882. It included the period when England twice refused Zanzibar as a gift; when she drove many thousands of her subjects into revolt by insisting on the abandonment of a scientific frontier, won by a heavy sacrifice of blood and treasure; and when France and Morocco in 1845 declined to trouble about the ownership of desert, because the delimitation of it would be superfluous. The next stage began in 1882. Europe wanted wider markets for cotton, powder, and gin, and therefore realized the duty of a "moral mission" to the Africans. This stage lasted from the foundation of the "Associa-

tion Internationale" for the development of the Congo, until in 1885 the Brussels Act was passed to regulate the conditions under which annexations might be made and trade conducted. In the same year began the third stage, that of earth-hunger and scramble. Its maxim appeared to be: "Shut your eyes and grab what you can, and afterwards find out whether you have scored a hornet's nest, a diamond mine, or a fever hospital." This lasted till 1892, when the establishment of the German Protectorate over the south-western coast, and of the French over Dahomey, swallowed up the last fragments of free Africa.

Sir Edward Hertslet does not tell us the story. He gives us the materials in convenient form, and leaves us to read their lessons for ourselves. The documents are edited with such judgment, and the book will save all students of African history so much trouble, that it is ungracious to grumble at details. We cannot but regret, however, that many of the memoranda that often accompany and modify treaties have not been given us. The book would then have been much more instructive; the information in it is available already in the Parliamentary papers, and the memoranda are not. A geographical rather than an alphabetical arrangement would also, we think, have been more convenient, especially as the book is provided with a detailed index and chronological list of papers. These together occupy ninety-five pages, and greatly enhance the value of the book. A little more care might have been given to the spelling of the place names, which at present are often rather confusing. Thus one name occurs as Ogaden, Ogadyn, Orguden, and Ooguden. The maps are not always quite correct, even in very important points. The one facing page 150 is especially unfortunate; amongst other things it reverses the position of Kau and Kipini, on which the delimitation of the southern frontier of the Witu Protectorate depends.

The pitfalls to be avoided were, however, innumerable, and the author seems to have eluded most in garnering up his sheaf of treaties. The book is not calculated to appeal to a wide circle of readers. We wish it were, because of the many useful lessons it teaches. Amongst these the chief is the powerlessness of paper pledges to restrain national growth. For instance, England has been compelled in places to disregard the title deeds of Portugal and the Orange Free State. Italy is now settling permanently in territory which was defined to be British in the agreement of 1891, and which is still claimed as such in Sir Edward Hertslet's maps. The Brussels Act of 1890 affords an even more striking illustration of the value of good resolutions. A few dozens of illustrious diplomats, of whom only three had any special knowledge of the subject, then met in a sumptuous apartment in Brussels and laid down laws to govern the men who were struggling with famine, disease, and savagery in the heart of Central Africa. They decided what these men might do and what they might not do, which of their possessions they might sell for food when they were starving and which they might not. As the Act is now being quietly ignored in some of its most important clauses by the very Governments which framed it, it is little wonder that only the humour of the thing appeals to our pioneers abroad.

THE CAMBRIDGE NATURAL HISTORY.

"Molluscs." By the Rev. A. H. Cooke. "Brachiopods" (Recent). By A. E. Shipley. "Brachiopods" (Fossil). By F. R. C. Reed. Being Vol. III. of the Cambridge Natural History. Edited by S. F. Harmer and A. E. Shipley. London: Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THAT a Cambridge Natural History, written by Cambridge men, edited by Cambridge editors, and illustrated by a Cambridge artist, should yet have been neither printed by the Cambridge Press nor issued with the authority of Cambridge University! Most of our readers will no doubt agree with us, that the Pitt Press need not have been ashamed to set its imprint on a book far less deserving than this; and we cannot but think that the University authorities have missed (or is it that they have refused?) an excellent opportunity of associating themselves with a work long demanded by those interested in

the spread of the better kind of Natural History, and the mere publication of which brings credit to its promoters.

Let us, however, accept the gifts the gods have given us, without considering too curiously whether the Olympus from which they descend be in Cambridge or in Covent Garden. And there is much to be thankful for in the volume before us, which, though the first to be issued, is numbered Vol. III. of the complete series of ten, and which deals with the two very different groups of soft-bodied, shell-bearing animals, the Mollusca and the Brachiopoda. We would not appear to disparage the contents of the book by directing too much attention to its paper, its type, its binding, and its illustrations; but we are so unaccustomed, at all events in this country, to see a Natural History of the lower animals turned out in such a sumptuous manner that we feel bound to give praise where praise is due. The illustrations have mostly been prepared by Mr. Edwin Wilson from specimens in the Cambridge Museum; and if subsequent volumes of this work are similarly ornamented, a very valuable addition will be made to that large number of clichés which are the blessing of text-book writers, but which hitherto, owing to their antiquity and incorrectness, have been the despair of text-book reviewers.

In the present volume no less than 459 pages deal with the Mollusca, while 50 are thought enough for the Brachiopoda. Commercially, though not perhaps scientifically, this disproportion is justified. The molluscs are described by the Rev. A. H. Cooke, who has obviously a large and exact acquaintance with the natural history of his group in many parts of the world, although the land and fresh-water molluscs seem to appeal to him more than the marine. It is in his collection of observations (many of them due to his own eye) on the habits of these animals that the chief value of the book to the naturalist, as well as its chief interest to the public, will be found to consist. We could spare such facts as the slug-eating tastes of "a reverend Canon of the Church of England," the use of cowries as money, or of oyster-shells for window-panes; such details, where not absolutely trivial, belong to anthropology, not to zoology. But we could spare none of the interesting cases in which one species of shell-fish is shown to imitate the form or colouring either of some other species or of some natural object, in order that it may thus escape being eaten; nor would we lose the valuable accumulation of instances in which shells are shown to change in thickness, shape, or colour with the temperature, the salinity, or other conditions of their environment.

So far as facts are concerned, Mr. Cooke's work is reliable. Perhaps too much childlike confidence in the names applied by collectors is displayed in the otherwise valuable chapters on geographical distribution. But we regret that we cannot speak so favourably of the author's attempt to be up to date in anatomy and classification. He has swallowed recent facts and theories with avidity, but he has hardly digested them. While, therefore, we warmly recommend his work to the lay reader, to the field naturalist, and to the advanced specialist (as a lubrication for his "dryness"), still we should not place it in the hands of a "serious student" who wished to gain a competent knowledge of molluscan morphology.

The Brachiopoda are animals that do not often fall into the hands of the modern naturalist; but they were once more numerous than even the Mollusca, and are, therefore, of great interest to the geologist. This, however, does not seem to us sufficient reason for entrusting the treatment of the group to two writers, one of whom, Mr. Shipley, deals with the recent, and the other, Mr. Cowper Reed, with the fossil brachiopods. What they have said is well enough, and will be thought adequate by most purchasers of the volume; but the divided authorship has produced considerable repetition, and a discontinuity in what might have been made a fascinating story.

Needless repetition and a want of arrangement are, however, conspicuous throughout the book. Were it not for the title-page, one would never imagine that the contents had been edited by two such well-known men as Mr. S. F. Harmer and Mr. A. E. Shipley. Mr. Shipley, indeed, who makes two absolutely contradic-

tory statements within fourteen lines (p. 479), and who permits himself a classification of the Brachiopoda discordant with that of his fellow-author, could hardly be expected to restrain the vagaries of Mr. Cooke. But surely Mr. Harmer might have put his foot down occasionally. He might, for instance, have suggested that we do not want two distinct accounts of the formation of the snail-shell, separated from one another by 218 pages; he might have pointed out that the attachment of the mussel to the crab, pathetic though it be, has nothing to do with the "Habits of Land and Fresh-water Mollusca"; and he might have seen that Mr. Cooke's own little preface to the Mollusca did not arrogate the position of preface to the whole volume. "To allow contributors to a large extent to handle their subject in the way in which they can do it and themselves the most justice" is a somewhat negative virtue: a real editor will assist his contributors to attain the same desirable end.

TWO CLASSICAL PUBLICATIONS.

"Select Passages from Ancient Writers Illustrative of the History of Greek Sculpture." Edited, with a translation and notes, by H. Stuart Jones, M.A., Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford, formerly student of the British School at Athens. London: Macmillan. 1895.

THIS work in the introduction gives a historical sketch and deals with general questions appertaining to Greek sculpture, and then furnishes a more or less continuous history of the art from 600 to 323 B.C. by means of extracts from ancient writers which are printed with a translation facing each in a parallel column. These translations are well executed and (so far as we have observed) accurate. Many of the extracts are highly interesting for themselves as well as for the information which they convey. The book will be most useful to those who are indisposed to face complete histories of sculpture like those of Overbeck and Collignon, as it does not contain, like those works, very much more than is required of university students taking up Greek sculpture as a subject of examination, and as it supplies explanation and comment, which to most university students would be quite indispensable.

"The Journal of Philology." Vol. XXIII. No. 46. London and Cambridge: Macmillan. 1895.

This number contains eight articles, all worth reading and even preserving, and all worthy of the high reputation of "The Journal of Philology." Mr. John Masson's "New Details from Suetonius's Life of Lucretius" will probably appeal to the largest circle of readers, while the third instalment of Mr. Walter Headlam's conjectures will be most interesting to lovers of pure scholarship. Very scholarly and able indeed are most of his suggestions, but we think he is too apt to satisfy himself when he has answered the question, "What ought the author to have said?" whereas the critic's task is not completely executed until he has essayed at least an answer to the further question, "How did the corrupt reading arise?" This observation is certainly applicable to the "Homeric" of Mr. Platt, who treats the Homeric hymns too much as if they were the exercises of a schoolboy. Mr. Headlam is naturally most successful in writers like Longus and Achilles Tatius, where there is nearly as much for the gleaner as for the reaper; but he gives us conjectures on the most desperate of the *Æschylean crucis*, which though rarely (if ever) convincing, are always instructive and scholarly. In most of them even to state the case would require considerable space, and to discuss the question a short essay or a very long note would be needful, and we can only notice a couple of points. We think there is a good deal to be said for *ἱρυκματοφέριμον* in Agam. 121, for we have not in our present texts of *Æschylus* that which would justify expressions like *κομποφάκελοργήμονα*, applied by Aristophanes to *Æschylus*. We like *ἴξορπίσσθ* for the unmetrical *ἴξω κούρπισσθ* in Eur. Tro. 165, and in the still vexed verse, Bacchæ 850, *ἴς τέλει θεῶν*, "in the company of heaven," is attractive. All Mr. Headlam's suggestions deserve consideration, and that is more than can be said for most *conjectanea*.

WOMAN AND PRIMITIVE CULTURE.

"Woman's Share in Primitive Culture." By Otis Tufton Mason, Ph.D. London: Macmillan. 1895.

IT is almost impossible to find any one with the capacity for writing sanely about women at the present day. If a man writes about women, in nine cases out of ten he ends by being sentimental, and in the tenth case he becomes hysterical. If a woman writes about women, in nine cases out of ten it is because, being unhappy with her own male-folk, she sees only the intolerable side of existing sexual relationships; thus her work is vitiated by an unnatural and distorted view not only of man but of woman's absolute need of man, if she is to enjoy life to the full of its possibilities. The tenth woman, like the tenth man, grows hysterical, because she has never had any healthy everyday relations with men at all. A foreigner attempting to form some estimate of English character from the current English literature would reach some strange conclusions. He would find the following female types: (i) The woman who "submits": she is generally depicted with an overbearing husband and ten to fourteen children. (ii) The woman who "rebels": she is spoken of as emancipated and generally as highly educated. In the excitement of a ballroom she accepts a nincompoop for a husband, or in handing a cup of tea falls into the arms of a good-looking and tall-talking blackguard. The tortures of the rest of her life are entirely attributed to the wickedness of the man, or to the absurdities of our social system. Lastly, we have (iii) the small anaemic type, who alternates between loathing and embracing the egotistic male—we presume according to the degree of poverty of blood in her veins. The male types correspond: (i) the aforesaid nincompoop without education and with unlimited prejudice; (ii) the good-looking egotist and blackguard, who, according to modern literature, must form nine-tenths of the male population of modern England; and lastly (iii) the "good" man, generally educated but endowed with insufficient virility to save the female type (ii) from the male type (ii): he stands in the background as hanger-on, guardian angel, and consummate prig. This must be the impression of our chief English types which the aforesaid foreigner would form did he search our modern literature from Meredith to George Egerton, from Gissing to Mona Caird. And yet how absolutely untrue! There are thousands of Englishwomen who are neither anaemic nor neurotic, and whose physical nature does not throw them into the arms of the first muscular egotist who comes in their way; there are thousands of men who are neither sentimental nor hysterical, nor purely animal in their relations to women. The fact is that a large proportion of modern literature is neither the product of those who have studied and thought upon the development of the sex-relations nor of those of sound intellectual powers and healthy physique; it is too often the output of men or women who have found sex a curse owing to the want of these very essentials of a rational all-round life.

We should be slow to deny that a great change is taking place in the position and activities of women, but we believe in treating that change from a sane standpoint, and neither growing sentimental nor hysterical about it. Nothing can be more helpful in this direction than a purely objective, historical study of woman's work in the world from the earliest stages of barbarism; nothing can show more clearly that change of status and change of activity have always been going on, and that the moral and the immoral in sexual matters are questions of social expediency, and have adjusted and will adjust themselves with changing status so that society as a whole emerges stable and reproductive.

The work of woman in prehistoric communities, when carefully analyzed from the fossils with which archaeology, folklore, and philology provide us, assumes somewhat large proportions as compared with the work of men. Nor is the explanation far to seek; the dependence of the child largely, in many cases entirely, on the mother, led to the development of her powers of invention. The physical facts of motherhood differentiated woman from the hunter and fighter; and man comes only at a later

date to share in the comforts and activities which developed round the maternal relationship. Agriculture, weaving, the potter's craft, cooking, the elements of medicine, take their origin from the relation of mother to child, and are essentially part of woman's contribution to civilization. This is not demonstrated by Dr. Mason—he may be said to really demonstrate nothing—but it will be shown to be true when a full history of woman and her activities comes to be written. What Dr. Mason gives us are but facts of woman's present or recent activities among the primitive races of America. There is no evidence in his book that he has sufficient knowledge of comparative folk-lore or philology to see why women came to exert these special activities, or the social or sexual evolution which took place during their development. He has merely stated facts, which will, properly interpreted, be of use to future scientific historians of woman's development. Of evolution and development he appears to have no grasp. Otherwise how are we to understand such passages as these? "At the very beginning of human time, she [woman] laid down the lines of her duties, and she has kept to them unremittingly."

"How comfortless, however, was the first woman who stood upon this planet! How economical her dowry! Her body was singularly devoid of comfortable hair. . . . As yet she had no tools of peaceful industry, nor experience. . . . But even this poorly equipped woman had more brain than was sufficient to meet the demands of bodily existence, and in this fact lay the promise of her future achievement. The maternal instinct, the strong back, the deft hand, the aversion to aggressive employment, the conservative spirit were there in flower."

"The scraper is the oldest implement of any craft in the world. The Indian women of Montana still receive their trade from their mothers, and they, in turn, were taught by theirs, in unbroken succession, since the birth of the human species."

These passages, were they not self-contradictory, would be more than sufficient to show that the author is no believer in evolution by natural selection. This suspicion is fully borne out, however, by a paragraph on p. 275, wherein the law of the survival of the fittest is directly repudiated as applied to man, in tribe or nation. From such a standpoint, then, we must not expect any real insight into woman's history. What Dr. Mason does give us are: first, some very interesting facts as to woman's work in weaving, pottery, and agriculture, drawn, however, from a rather narrow field; secondly, some rather less valuable statements as to woman as "founder of society," "patron of religion," and linguist (comparative study, especially of early Aryan institutions, would have led to far more luminous chapters on these topics); and lastly, especially in the concluding chapter, a quantity of false sentiment, which is, perhaps, directed "to my fair reader." The man who writes a book intended to be of historical value, and addresses some remark "to my fair reader," is in a hopeless condition. We expect him to tell us that "the exaltation of women is the synonym of progress," and to talk of "the aroma from her [woman's] fragrant life." We are not surprised when we read: "if in allegory and metaphor and painting and sculpture the highest ideals are women, it is because they have a right to be there." This almost reaches that pinnacle of absurdity touched by the editor of a woman's paper, who "believes that the grand procession through which each individual soul passes in its earthly development culminates in woman, sex being one stage, and the feminine the highest and last."

But enough; Dr. Mason does not view woman's development from the objective standpoint of science and history. He does not understand that the exaltation of either sex is absurd, and that those who sanely and healthily await the changes taking place in woman's status and activity at the present day are hoping for honest comradeship with no false sentiment, no mystery, and no repression, mental or physical. However, Dr. Mason has given us facts, and some few illustrations of value, and for these we are glad indeed, as we turn to him from the wilderness of modern literature and its views on woman.

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